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VOL. XXI.—NEW SERIES. *No.* 81.—*JULY*, 1918.

COUNCIL NOTES AND NEWS.

THE REORGANISATION OF DOMESTIC SERVICE.

With the signing of the armistice and the beginning of demobilisation the Women's Industrial Council knew that the moment had come to put into practice its ideas for the improvement of daily domestic service. The following scheme for attracting daily domestic workers and for standardising the conditions of their work, which had already been prepared, was adapted to fit into the existing administrative framework and sent to the Government Departments concerned. There is reason to believe that the official scheme, when it appears, will bear a family likeness to it.

Scheme for the Employment of Daily Domestic Workers (Skilled).

In several large towns, the idea of directing discharged women munition workers into daily domestic work is gaining ground, and the Women's Industrial Council has already received inquiries from Birmingham and Sheffield as to the best methods of doing this.

Employers, though most anxious for more domestic workers, are still continuing to ask for indoor servants; they are not prepared to offer, indeed they are hardly yet aware of, the new conditions of service which alone will attract any large number of women back to industry.

Action must therefore at once be taken:—

1. To encourage skilled domestic workers to return to domestic work; and to enable them to find it without loss of time and energy under conditions which they will accept.

2. To convince would-be employers of the necessity of adapting their requirements to the altered conditions and to put them in touch with the daily workers most suited to them.

3. To establish a sound standard of working conditions for daily domestic work.

The Women's Industrial Council therefore proposes the following scheme: That a Trade Committee on Daily Domestic Service (Skilled) should be set up by the Minister of Labour in connection with one or more Women's Employment Exchanges and include, together with representation of the workers, representatives of the Women's

Industrial Council, the Household Orderly Committee, and other bodies having special knowledge and experience.

The duty of the Committee would be to consider and advise on the following points :—

1. Standard conditions of employment.

The Women's Industrial Council suggests the following as the result of their inquiries into this industry :—

(*a*) A minimum wage of 30*s*. a week of 48 hours, exclusive of meal-times, rest-times, and holidays.

(*b*) Working hours shall be arranged so as to allow for one whole holiday or two half-holidays per week.

(*c*) Overtime to be paid for at a higher rate per hour.

(*d*) Where meals are provided an agreed sum to be deducted from the worker's wage.

2. The best means of enforcing the standard working conditions recommended.

3. Effective means of inducing workers who have had experience of domestic work to take it up again now.

4. Effective means of inducing employers to adapt themselves to the altered circumstances, and to form the habit of employing daily workers.

5. The best method of putting employers and workers in touch, paying as much regard to individual requirements and preferences as possible.

6. The advisability of setting up special exchanges for domestic workers.

7 The adoption of similar schemes in other large industrial centres.

The Household Orderly Corps.

The following bye-laws and suggestions have been drawn up for those who wish to start a Household Orderly Corps in their own neighbourhood :—

1. Centres to be established in residential districts from which domestic workers are supplied by the hour. Each centre to be financially self-supporting.

2. A Guild of Employers to be formed who pay an annual subscription of £2 2*s*. or who take shares.

3. The workers to be enrolled in a Corps and paid 30*s*. by the management for a week of 48 working hours. Workers provide their own lodging, laundry, and food. (See Clause 9).

4. A Board of Management to be established in connection with each Centre, which shall select a Chairman and Treasurer and appoint a Secretary-Manager. It shall take adequate steps to ascertain and give effect to the views of the workers as well as those of the employers.

5. Charges to employers, wages, hours, overtime charges, meal times, uniforms, and holidays of the workers shall be fixed by the Secretary-Manager, under the control of the Board.

6. Each employer and each worker shall be provided with a time-sheet, stating the hour when the work began and ended.

7. Complaints on either side should be made to the Manager. Disputes between employers and workers to be settled by the Board of Management, which shall have power to terminate membership of employers or workers.

8. Workers will be required to wear the uniform of the corps while on duty.

9. One hour off for dinner and half-an-hour each for breakfast and tea and supper shall be allowed to the worker at such times as may be mutually convenient. The workers can either :—

(*a*) Bring their own food ;
(*b*) Go out for meals ; or,
(*c*) Arrange for the employer to supply them. (*N.B.*— An arrangement might be made for a supply of coupons with which the worker could pay the employer for her meal, the price being recoverable by the employer from the Manager.)

10. Workers shall be entitled to two weeks' holiday on full wages in each year ; and to one whole day or two half-days each week, determined beforehand.

ADDITIONAL SUGGESTIONS.

1. Two references should be taken up for each worker, one for a character, and one for efficiency. In addition, arrangements should be made for testing the worker before admission. This might be done at a Domestic Economy Centre, an institution, or possibly a private house. The rates of pay are only intended to apply to tested workers.

2. Inexperienced workers might be admitted and paid a lower rate while receiving training by going out with tested workers.

3. Hostels might be established in which the workers could live and take their meals. Many other developments might grow out of this to meet the needs of the locality.

4. The Corps might run as :—

(*a*) A limited liability company ;
(*b*) An employment agency ;
(*c*) A co-operative association ;

and the funds might be raised :—

(*a*) By means of shares in the company ;
(*b*) By subscriptions of members ;
(*c*) By a loan, to be repaid gradually.

5. It has been estimated that a Corps of not less than fifty orderlies would be needed to make it self-supporting, and that it would not be wise to start unless about £1,000 were available for initial expenses, since the Corps could not hope to cover its cost for the first three months.

6. It is essential that a competent and energetic worker should give the whole of her time for several weeks in order to arouse the local interest and to make the preliminary arrangements, such as enrolling the first members (employers and workers), forming the original Committee of Management, collecting the funds with which to start, &c.

7. It is suggested that employers should be charged 10*d.* an hour for the service of tested workers, mealtimes not to be included. It might be pointed out that at this rate the cost to an employer of 6 hours' daily service with 4 hours on Sundays would be £83 3*s.*, while the present annual cost of an indoor domestic servant with a wage of £30 is about £84 8*s.*, made up as follows :—

	£	*s.*	*d.*
Wages	30	0	0
50 weeks' food at 15*s.* per week	37	10	0
50 weeks' laundry at 2*s.* 6*d.* ..	6	5	0
Health Insurance	0	13	0
Extras, wear and tear of bedroom, &c.	10	0	0
	£84	8	0

8. If a hostel is established the girls shall not be obliged to live there.

9. The Centre might be used to help find employment for delicate middle-aged, educated women, who could do light work, such as mending, home-minding, accompanying shopping, &c.

The Women's Industrial Council is already in touch with persons in Birmingham, where a Centre is being started shortly by Miss Klaassen, and other parts of the country, and would be glad to hear of others who are ready to help to organise a Corps. It would also welcome offers of service from any one who has experience of organising and of household management who could devote some time to starting the scheme in places which ask for help.

Post-War Employment of Temporary Government Clerks.

Readers of *The News* will not be surprised to learn that the recommendations for demobilizing temporary women clerks in Government offices, which have been made by the Civil War Workers' Committee of the Ministry of Reconstruction,* follow very closely the scheme put before it by the Joint Committee on Post-War Unemployment. Unfortunately, there has been omitted one point to which our Committee attaches great importance. No provision has been made for seeing the women clerks individually, before they are dismissed, for finding out their capacities and preferences and

* Final Report of the Civil War Workers' Committee on Substitute Labour. 1918. Cd. 9228. 1d.

for advising them as to their future careers. Small rota committees, such as work very successfully in connection with the London Juvenile Advisory Committees, should visit each Department in turn to do this work. As the dismissal of the temporary women clerks has hardly yet begun, it is hoped that they may still be added to the proposed scheme before it is carried into effect.

Voluntary Work for War Workers.

The efforts of the Women's Industrial Council to induce war workers, who are in a position to do so, to retire from wage-earning during the present period of dislocation and unemployment are bearing fruit in many directions. On all hands one hears of workers who have put the precept into practice. A large meeting to encourage others to follow their example was held in the Queen's Hall on January 16th and was addressed by Lady Ampthill, the Rev. H. R. L. Sheppard, and Countess Ferrers.

A most moving appeal was received from the London County Council a few weeks ago asking for 4,000 additional Care Committee Workers.

Finance.

At the end of October the Council appealed to its members and subscribers for financial help, stating that a considerable deficit already existed, which would have grown to something like £90 by the end of the Council's year. Within less than four weeks, the Hon. Treasurer was able to make the cheering announcement to the Executive Committee that the whole of this actual and prospective liability had been wiped out, the contributions received to date amounting to just over £90. At the moment of going to press this total has risen to £105.

The Committee thank the donors, not only for their generosity, but for the spontaneous expressions of goodwill and encouragement which the appeal has evoked. So prompt and so complete a response in these difficult times proves, on the part of old and new friends alike, their loyalty to the principles and traditions of the Council, and their confident belief that it has still much work to do.

Change of Secretary.

All those members of the Council who are in close touch with its daily work must regret that personal reasons have obliged Mrs. Boyd Dawson to exchange the secretaryship of the Women's Industrial Council for a more highly-paid post. For some years Mrs. Dawson had been a valuable member of the Executive Committee and in May, 1917, she became, by the unanimous vote of that Committee, General Secretary. During her short period of office, which ended in August, 1918, and the whole of which, therefore, was spent amid the hampering conditions of the war, her output of work was surprisingly great. It was she who first formulated the scheme of a Household Orderly Corps, in answer to the reproach of a lady who wanted to know what the Council had ever done for the largest and

most unsatisfactory of women's employments. If domestic service should develop along the essential lines of that scheme—as seems not at all unlikely—it will be but fair to remember that it originated with Mrs. Dawson. All the early work of organising and making known the scheme was undertaken by the Council and the main burden, of course, rested upon its Secretary.

Another piece of work carried out during Mrs. Dawson's term of office was the Conference to consider the future of the "Pocket-Money" Clerk, which arose from the inquiry and discussions summed up by Miss Ashford's report upon the demobilisation of women clerks published in *The News* of last April.

The important report (No. IV.) of the Industry and Motherhood Inquiry, which appeared in the number for July, 1918, was written by Mrs. Dawson. Further, she pointed out that the records collected showed an association between sedentary occupations (those, in fact, customarily regarded as especially suitable for women) and difficult maternity. The figures were but small and the indication may not be confirmed by further investigation. On the other hand, this observation may be the first step towards a complete reversal of current opinions about occupations in relation to maternity.

A less conspicuous, but exceedingly valuable, activity was the revision and bringing up to date of various industrial records in the office, especially those of the Trades Bureau.

In all these matters, in the constant interviewing of visitors, and at Committee meetings Mrs. Dawson's varied industrial knowledge, wide experience, and sound judgment were invaluable to the Council.

Members of the Council will be aware that its finances have suffered during the war. Yet never in its many years of work, has there been more need for the careful inquiries and considered conclusions which have always marked its course. Any considerable restriction of its activities would therefore have been particularly unfortunate; and the necessity of such restriction has been obviated by Mrs. W. J. Barton and Miss Jeannette L. Franklin, who have consented to become joint Hon. Secretaries. The work of both must be perfectly familiar to readers of these pages, none of whom will feel any doubt that the continuity of the Council's action will be preserved in their hands.

C. B.

"EQUAL PAY FOR EQUAL WORK"?

THE problem of women's wages, and more especially of their relation to those of men, is one of the most important and the most difficult that is now awaiting solution in the industrial world. It is therefore useful, and, indeed, essential, to examine it with care and impartiality; to see how it has come to be and what are permanent, what only transient, elements in it; to make clear to ourselves what the final solution should be, what action we must take and what pitfalls we must avoid in order to advance towards it and in the end to realise it completely.

An exact study of the problem is not possible, as detailed and reliable facts are scarce; only in the textile trade were there for women before the war well-established trade unions and trade union rates. Private investigators could do no more than take samples and hope that they were typical. Government inquiries were rare, and those that were made were not always published; they depended on voluntary response and could not be expected to reveal the lowest payments. It is, however, worth while to give the figures that were collected by the Board of Trade from the most important trades in the country for the year 1906 :—

AVERAGE WEEKLY EARNINGS.

Men's Wages.

TRADE.	For full time. s.	d.	For less or more than full time. s.	d.
Textiles	28	1	27	3
Building and Wood Working	32	0	30	8
Food, Drink, Tobacco	26	4	26	5
Paper and Printing	34	4	34	2
Metals, Engineering, Ships	33	11	32	3
Public Utility Services	28	1	27	0
Railway Service	24	4	26	8

Women's Wages.

Textiles	15	5	14	10
Clothing	13	6	13	0
Food, Drink, Tobacco	11	5	11	3
Paper and Printing	12	2	11	11

These figures cover trades employing only about one-third of all the women returned in the census as "occupied," and relate only to one-third of the women in those trades. They are, therefore, far from complete, and it is safe to assume that the wages which are not recorded are lower than those which we know. There can be no doubt that before the war a woman usually earned only half a man's wage for a full week's work.

The minimum rates fixed by the Trade Boards shortly before the war for the chain-making, lace-finishing, cardboard box-making, and ready-made tailoring trades gave the same ratio: the rates are fixed for the sex and not for the process; the men's rate, where there was one, was 6*d.* an hour, the women's rates ranged from 2½*d.* to 3¼*d.* an hour.

It must, of course, be clearly understood that this does not mean that women were paid half as much as men for doing the same work. Before the war, with a few important exceptions, women were rarely employed in exactly the same processes as men, and when they were the actual task was usually different. In weaving, for instance, women were usually in charge of fewer looms, in printing some of the heavy lifting had to be done for them by labourers, in many trades women

handled lighter articles; again, where processes were carried out in some parts of the country by men, in others by women—such as coal-sorting at the pit brow—the conditions were varied to suit the workers.

But whatever the differences in the task may have been, the rate of pay was determined, except in the textile trade, not by the work done, but by the sex of the worker. There were two standards of value for industrial work: one for men, and another, only about half as high, for women; and the wages for any particular job or process were fixed by one standard if it was done by men, by the other if the workers were women.

How did these two standards come to be? There seem to be two root causes which can be clearly distinguished, although they act and re-act upon each other. In all spheres of human activity one of the most powerful forces is custom or habit; and this force exerts a particularly strong influence in questions concerning the industrial classes, for it can only be effectively overcome by education in its broadest sense. An inquirer fresh from the study of the "economic man" of the text-books and the revolutionary aims of some proletarian programmes will certainly feel surprise when he learns to know the point of view and attitude of mind of the men and women in the industrial world; the conservatism and devotion to custom which he will find amongst the employers, and still more amongst the workers, will force him to remodel all his theories of industrial organisation and to recast his schemes for bringing about the millenium. Without doubt, the double standard of to-day depends largely on custom which arose under conditions now long past. It dates back to the time when households were self-contained and wages were only a small part of the means of supplying them. When men went out to work for wages custom changed, and this had a curious effect upon women, who still worked, for the most part, under the old conditions. For now it became customary for the household to be supported by wages earned outside it and it was difficult for untrained minds to think of payment for services rendered in any other form than that of a wage in cash or its exact equivalent, especially since the Truck Acts and the gradual disappearance of payment in kind, at any rate, in men's trades.

But a large number of the women classed as "occupied" in the census (including domestic servants, who in 1911 were 36 per cent of the "occupied" women, and many dressmakers and milliners) still lived as in pre-industrial days and received a large part of their wages in the form of board and lodging, with only a small cash payment in addition. A still larger number of working women neither received nor expected any cash payment at all for their services to their husbands and children in their own homes. Their expenditure of time and energy in domestic occupations was not and hardly could be appraised at such and such a value in money. Thus, naturally

perhaps, but wrongly, it was thought to have no economic value at all, or only a very small one. And so the time and energy which a woman put into industrial work seemed worth much less than those of a man, since after all she might, and, as many thought, should, be at home, where she would be earning no money at all. This attitude of mind was supported and the low wages resulting from it were made possible by the fact that nearly one-half of the "occupied females" were under 25 years of age and more than a quarter were under 20 years. Thus, a very large number of women and girls working in industry lived in their parents' home, or, at any rate, were expected to be able to do so; and it was not felt to be a disgrace either to their employer or to themselves if they did not contribute the whole cost of their keep to the family purse. For their mothers and sisters who stayed at home and looked after the house and family earned no money at all, but appeared to be entirely supported by the wages of the others.

Again, it is customary to provide for the renewal of the race to a very large extent through the wage paid to men for the work they do. Thus it is both natural and necessary to pay a higher wage to men who, as a rule, have families to keep than to women whose financial responsibilities are usually far smaller. For even bachelors are often saving up to establish a home of their own and the families of widows have lost their most expensive member. The women who contribute to the support of others are probably not more in number than those who are partially dependent. For, in contradiction to the economic theory that wages cannot fall below the level of subsistence of the workers, many women and girls were paid before the war less than a living wage. It is estimated that more than one-fifth of the "occupied" women and girls received less than 10*s*. for a full week's work, and must have had some of their needs provided for them by others. But this well-meant generosity of fathers, brothers, and sweethearts only made it harder for all women and girls to obtain wages sufficient for them to live on. It is not necessary for men's wages to be high enough to enable them to support parasitic trades in addition to their own families.

The other chief cause of the double standard of wages is the large group of facts which are perhaps best summed up in the phrase "the prospects and fact of marriage and motherhood." These facts are too subtle to analyse, too elusive to enumerate, but we all know some of their manifestations and of their effects. They handicap women very heavily in the contest of economic forces, by which the amount of wages is now most frequently fixed. For skill and experience, organisation and esprit de corps are the things which nowadays secure high wages and which are hard for women and girls to obtain.

Skill takes both teaching and time to win. Now, girls have few opportunities to be well trained for industry; there are as yet no permanent trade schools for girls outside London, apprenticeship

is rare, workshop training, though more frequent, is limited and unsatisfactory; future efficiency is apt to be sacrificed to present production. Yet it is impossible to deny the force of the argument that it is not worth while, either to the girl herself or to her employer, to spend much time and effort, and often also valuable material, in acquiring a skill which she will use only for a few years. The expectation of marriage, even if it is never realised, is strong enough to make industrial training a risky speculation. And most girls do marry and give up their wage-earning work, at any rate for a time. If for any reason they wish to resume it later, they are apt to find the discipline and restraints of factory life irksome; more important still, their hardly-won skill has to some extent passed away from them as a result of disuse, it may even have become completely superseded in the factory by some newly-discovered process. The value to a girl of highly specialised technical skill is limited.

In the matter of gaining all-round experience of workshop processes, the same considerations apply, but not with the same force. For the specialisation is not carried so far, and experience teaches many things, which not only make a girl more valuable to her employer, but are needed and strengthened in domestic and social life as much as in the workshop. It is worth while for a girl to gain experience of this kind, for it will be of permanent value to her for whatever work she may be called upon to do in later years.

The expectation and fact of marriage is a great practical difficulty in creating any corporate feeling among girl workers; for each one hopes that in time she will be desired as an individual and will have a home of her own. Her ideal is a purely individualistic life, in which public affairs are an intrusion. It is very difficult to persuade the girls to take any interest in matters common to all of them, to agree to any form of collective action, and join any form of organisation. They often dislike even to disclose the contents of their weekly wage envelope to their fellow-workers, and in such an atmosphere no trade union can flourish. To the great majority of the girls their industrial work is but an interlude and their wages a secondary consideration. It is not easy to rouse the girls to win a living wage for themselves; still harder is it to obtain that sustained enthusiasm and steady membership which alone gives a trade union lasting strength and power. Out of the five million women employed in all occupations before the war, only about 350,000 were organised in trade unions.

Another cause of women's low wages which must be grouped with those arising out of her womanhood, is her lower physical strength and endurance. There has been very little scientific inquiry into particular processes in order to discover whether if carried on under suitable conditions they are more harmful to women than to men, and so far only processes involving the use of lead have been ascertained to be especially dangerous to women. But, apart from any definite disability of this nature, there is obviously a class of

work for which women are not as well suited as men, and a still larger class for which they are supposed to be less well suited, and this fact is a powerful, though illogical, argument against a general increase in their wages. It is also true that many women are more easily tired, less alert and interested than men. This is often due to the domestic duties which they have to do in addition to their industrial work; figures have been quoted showing that women are more frequently absent from work owing to illness, but it is not stated whether this illness is their own or that of another member of the family whom they have to nurse. Women also have a lower standard of comfort and of health than men; they spend less on their food and recreation, and so need less wages and are less energetic workers. It is difficult to say which is cause and which is effect; the higher war wages have enabled working women to feed themselves better, their output has exceeded all expectations, and they have earned better pay.

Thus custom and womanhood appear as the two underlying causes for the double standard of wages and for the low pay earned by women. Until the war their male fellow-workers did little to help them. Organised labour was fully occupied in fighting the battles of its own members, and it is of the utmost importance to the whole working class, men and women alike, that their standard of living and wages should be kept up. In the day-to-day struggle it was natural that the men should fail to grasp the wider issues and should seek to protect themselves against the competition of workers accustomed to a lower standard of living by the direct and simple method of refusing to admit them into their trades wherever they were strong enough to do so. The women, unable to enter most skilled and well-paid trades, were forced to crowd into those in which the wages were already lower, and by their competition depressed those wages still further.

Women have, in fact, been held in a vicious circle. Low wages reduced their self-respect, dulled their ambition, diminished their energies, limited their choice of trades, hampered their organisation, and as a result their wages became lower still. This circle has been broken by the war. The urgent demand for labour of all kinds, the need of employing women in place of men wherever possible, the chances given to women of acquiring training, skill, and experience, the self-respect and public spirit inspired by their new experiences, all these things have worked together to raise women's wages. Some women employed on what has been defined as men's work have been paid at skilled men's rates; others, as forewomen or as trained for specially skilled work have earned comparatively high women's rates; all are receiving far higher money wages than before the war. Although they often cannot buy more with them owing to the increased prices, yet they make the worker feel that she is worth a higher wage. Women's trade unions have grown by leaps and bounds, and have received active support from some of the men's;

other men's unions have admitted women members for the first time, as, for instance, the National Union of Railwaymen; the general unions have made special efforts to enrol women members. Women have enjoyed the novel experience of getting some of their battles fought for them by their men fellow-workers.

But when we look at the relation between men's and women's wages, we still find as a rule the old proportion; for many of the exceptional conditions have influenced men's wages as much and more than women's and deep-seated causes cannot be removed by the lapse of a few years, however crowded with new experiences. The average wages of men employed in munition factories are still about double those of the women and the same proportion is found in most of the advances of wages awarded by the Committee on Production. Even where the right of women to the same rate of pay as the men they displaced has been recognised, it has been whittled down by definition, change of process, and other methods not difficult to devise with the complicated systems of wage payment now in vogue. For instance, the railway women, for whom the promise of equal pay had been definitely obtained by the National Union of Railwaymen, entered the same grade as the men whose place they took, but were paid the minimum rate of the grade; again, when women had qualified themselves as acetylene welders, the process, which was a new one and had been generally considered a skilled trade but was not yet securely established as such, was declared by the Munitions Tribunal to be only semi-skilled on the astonishing ground that it had been learned by women, and a lower rate of pay was awarded. It was often necessary to divide the work of a skilled man, so that the woman or semi-skilled man only did a part of it, and was thus disqualified from earning his full rate; it is not suggested that the work was altered to give an opportunity of lowering the rate, an accusation which has often been brought and seldom substantiated; the need for rapid and standardised production compelled a change of method which had that result. In other cases women have received the men's rate, but not the war bonus granted to meet the higher cost of living.

But although women's wages have not increased as much as is commonly supposed, if we take the increased prices into account, yet there has been a lively interest in the question and a decided change of attitude, not only among the workers of both sexes, but also among employers and the general public. The existence of the two standards has been frankly recognised, its results examined, its necessity questioned; the formula of "equal pay for equal work" has been bandied about, discussed, adopted, and, rarely, put into practice.

One is driven to ask why there should be a desire to change an economic system which seems to be supported on one side by century old custom, on the other by the facts of nature itself. It was perhaps obvious that women should question this arrangement as soon as their experience had enabled them to form an opinion and their

organisation had given them courage to express it. Their own wages were intolerably low ; men received higher pay for no greater effort ; the claim for " equal pay for equal work " satisfied their sense of justice and met their immediate need ; its implications and remoter effects were left to the future to reveal. How was it that this claim, which was first made at the Trade Union Congress in 1888, remained unheeded for so long and then suddenly won such widespread acceptance ? The change must certainly be attributed in part to the growing knowledge of the facts and the awakening social conscience which have led to many recent reform movements. Appeals to the heart stimulate an Englishman to immediate action rather than to analytic thought, and so the Trade Boards Act of 1909 was passed. But its object was to abolish the worst underpayment, not to satisfy the claims of justice, nor to remove the deep-seated causes of low wages. The rates were fixed with reference to what the trades could bear and not to any abstract theory of right. The abolition of the double standard was considered impracticable, and the old relation between men's and women's wages was enshrined in legal regulations.

Since the war, however, the question has presented itself in a new light. Men and women were forced into direct competition and the consequences which might have been foreseen were unrolled before the eyes of all. The standard rate of men, the mainstay of the industrial class, was threatened. For if women were allowed to do men's work but to be paid for it at women's rates, it was clear that when the men came back after the war, their former security would have gone. They would either have to accept the lower rates or seek other work. For they knew that the ordinary employer would not pay higher wages than he must ; he has not yet discovered " the economy of high wages," because he does not possess the skill in management nor the power to take long views which it presupposes ; he still tries to keep the cost of production low by employing cheap and docile labour whenever he can. Yet when the very existence of the country was at stake, the men could not resist the pressure to employ women, and so they adopted the formula of " equal pay for equal work " as the most direct and simple method of self-defence in the emergency. By its means they hoped to safeguard their own hardly-won standard rate, while the obvious fairness of the proposal was in harmony with the general spirit prevailing in a country fighting for justice and the rights of the weak. It was therefore accepted as one of the principles of the famous Treasury Agreement on which all later action was based.

The necessity of bringing women into men's trades has shown up the inevitable consequences of the double-wage standard and thereby made many converts to the " equal pay " principle. But competition between the sexes is in fact continually at work in normal times also, although it is not so clear-cut and easy to see. For industry is not a stagnant pool, the waters of which stand always at

the same height and lap the same shores ; the work is not done in the same way by the same workers for the same wages year in year out all over the country. The industrial world is much rather like a flowing sea with its rising and ebbing tide pushing its way into one creek, and leaving another high and dry ; whole trades expand and contract, processes become now more simple, now more complex with each new invention, at one time it is machine-minders, at another skilled craftsmen who are most urgently wanted. Industries, processes, forms of skill are in constant competition with each other, and in this fierce struggle the most dangerous competitors of all are workers with a lower standard of wages and of living.

This fact had been realised long before the war and, as we have seen, trade unionists attempted to protect themselves by excluding women workers by trade union regulation. It is well known how for instance the London Society of Compositors successfully kept women out by insisting on a degree of skill which only one woman was able to gain. It is possible that a strict application of the principle of " equal pay " will be used again with the same object.

But even where no such sinister design exists women are seldom able to do exactly the same work as men. They have in the first place certain natural disabilities which have already been discussed among the causes of women's lower wages. Besides these, the conditions of industry as they exist to-day have been made by men to suit the nature and habits of the men working in them ; women need other conditions in order to do their best work. We have learnt a good deal during the war about the effect on output of environment and thoughtful care for the individual. We know that women and men alike will be more valuable workers if, for instance, the length and arrangement of the working hours suit them, if hot meals are available during the working day or night, if the journey to and from their work is comfortable, if, in short, they are treated as human beings. Now, in many of these details the needs of women will be different from those of men ; if, therefore, a standard suitable for men is set up, women workers will not as a rule be able to work their best under it ; they will not do " equal work," and will thus not be entitled to " equal pay." We must also recognise that if the work is " equal " and " equal pay " has to be given, natural conservatism and (may we add ?) natural prejudice will still lead employers at the present time to prefer the employment of the sex with whom they are used to dealing, and men will continue to hold the field.

Thus we see that to ask for " equal pay for equal work " is not enough to secure industrial stability. By itself it will only lead us back by another route to the same unsatisfactory state from which we are beginning to emerge. " Equal pay " must be given for unequal work as well, by which is meant that there must be only one standard of wages for both sexes. Rates of pay must be fixed, not according to the sex of the workers, but according to their skill and

experience, the amount of labour available, and all the other factors which determine the distribution of wages among the workers of one sex to-day.

There are many processes which are best suited to the average man, just as there are others best suited to the average woman; as a rule men have greater physical strength, women greater nimbleness of finger. There is a natural and sound tendency for them to take up different forms of work. This tendency only becomes dangerous when the difference in the class of work is accompanied by a difference in the rate of pay. For then work will be done by one sex or the other, not because it is best suited to its nature and capacity. The men will fight hard to retain or to claim all the jobs they can secure, while the employers will unite with the women to get them for the lower-paid labour. The old disputes over the demarcation of work will be continued, with all the bitterness of sex prejudice added to it.

It is clearly the double standard which has been the cause of so much harm in the past. It is this which has prevented a free movement among the workers of both sexes from one trade to another according to their suitability and inclination. It is this which has hampered progress and experiment in manufacturing processes, since each change was accompanied by disputes as to the standard of pay to be assigned to the new job. It is this which has involved a heavy loss in productive capacity, for women have been excluded from work for which they have now proved themselves to be especially well fitted. It is this which has given women a lower industrial status and for this reason degraded the quality of their work. They certainly do not desire to return to the old conditions, nor would any one benefit if they were forced to do so.

Our ultimate aim, then, must be to secure one standard of wages for men and women alike. What practical steps can we take to reach it? Obviously "equal pay for equal work" must be granted and granted, too, with the honest intention of paving the way towards the single standard. Equal opportunities for gaining skill and experience must be offered to girls and to boys. Wages in women's trades must be raised so as to reduce and finally to abolish the existing differences between women's and men's pay. Resolute attacks must be made upon the underlying causes of women's low wages. The change in our habitual attitude of mind towards women's industrial status must be hastened. Pocket-money wage-earning must be condemned. The supplementary wage-earning of women caused by the irregular employment of men must be made unnecessary. Increased attention must be paid to the health of girls and women. Factory arrangements must be devised to meet the needs of the individuals who work under them. Relief must be brought to the overburdened housewife. Serious consideration must be given to the whole question of providing for the nation's

children, with particular attention to its effect on women's status and wages.

The programme is indeed far-reaching, but nothing less will suffice if we wish free and happy workers to live in a secure and prosperous world. DOROTHEA M. BARTON.

REVIEWS.

An Introduction to Trade Unionism. By G. D. H. Cole. (2*s.* 6*d.* net).
The Payment of Wages. By G. D. H. Cole. (3*s.* 6*d.* net. Both published in 1918 by the Fabian Research Department, 25 Tothill Street, Westminster.)

ONLY a small proportion of these two volumes is devoted to the position of women workers in the industrial world, but members of the W.I.C. and others who are interested in that particular problem should by no means omit to make a careful study of Mr. Coles' reports. Since the outbreak of war women's interests have become involved in a field of industry wider than ever before, and the general conditions and difficulties of great industries, such as engineering and shipbuilding, now touch the lives of thousands of women who a few years ago regarded them as entirely the concern of man.

Mr. Cole, although differing greatly in temperament and outlook from Mr. and Mrs. Webb, is nevertheless in a great degree their worthy disciple and the hander-on of their torch. Like them, he is not only the propounder of views considered in their day to be extreme, but is also the unwearied and conscientious student, sparing no pains in the mastery of facts. He knows his subject intimately and from end to end, and can reduce his material to orderly shape and readable form. Particularly interesting is the lucid analysis of piece-work and payment by results. Part III. chap. iv. of 'Trade Unionism' and Part I. chaps. ix. to xi. of 'Payment of Wages' help us to realise how complex are the systems on which wages are computed, how many and various are the possibilities of fraud and evasion between the earning and the handing over the sum actually due. The isolated worker is helpless without a strong organisation, not only to back him up and support him, but to provide the expert scientific knowledge which the manual worker can only exceptionally possess, but which is absolutely necessary for his or her protection.

Of the different kinds and forms of trade unionism in the twentieth century, and in especial of the shop stewards' movement, of which much has been lately heard, Mr. Cole gives a clear and helpful survey.He also tells the story of the relation of the trade unions and the State during the war, and of other developments that have taken place in the extraordinary period that has now passed into history. He states his own views and aims, but, with an unusual degree of detachment, puts side by side therewith the difficulties that beset or postpone their fulfilment and realisation. Even those who are opposed to Mr. Cole's school cannot do better than provide

themselves with his books as a compendium of facts and a guide to the intricate social happenings of 1914–18. B. L. H.

Equal Pay and the Family : a Proposal for the National Endowment of Motherhood. (Headley Bros., 1*s.* net.)

WHAT strikes one first about this little book is the almost affectionate care which has been put into its preparation. We consider that social reformers owe much to the distinguished collaboraters—Miss Eleanor Rathbone, Miss Maude Royden, and others—for their well-reasoned statement on this all-important social question.

The basis of the claim for the endowment of motherhood is that a man receives certain wages from his employer in the expectation that he " has a family to keep." It is freely admitted that men, married and unmarried, receive the same wages and that a man with a large family receives no more than a man with one child. These facts and the widely differing scales of wages in different industries seem to us to point to another theory of wages altogether. But the argument of the joint authors receives support from the position of women. It is customary for women to receive a lower standard of pay than men. There seem to us to be innumerable reasons for this low standard of wages and it is clear that once it has become established it must affect the quality of women's work, and thus it is made increasingly difficult to remove the disability. However, the joint authors believe that it is impossible to claim " equal pay for equal work " while women remain without the financial responsibility for the rearing of the next generation.

If we concede this point we have to admit the advantages of a scheme which recognises the value of women's work in the home, and which provides economic independence for the married woman. As the authors point out, " Motherhood—which has too often been called the noblest of all professions—too often means a life of overwork rewarded by continuous privation and anxiety about making both ends meet." Under the system of war separation allowances the mothers of the country have shown themselves—speaking generally—to be capable of seeing that the children are " better fed and clothed than at any time since medical inspection was introduced " (Sir George Newman, Report for 1916).

An attempt is made to meet the possible danger that family endowment may cause a general fall in wages. If the wages theory at the basis of the scheme is right we are convinced that they would fall. If it is wrong, we do not see the need to spend 144 millions annually on family endowment in order to get equal pay for equal work.

Supporters of the enfranchisement of women, in the wider sense of the word, believe in freedom of choice in selecting an occupation. Will it be possible for married women to claim this freedom and at the same time to receive payment from the State for performing certain definite duties ? And is there not a danger that the State will attempt to control very largely the lives of the children who

have been supported by the State from birth? Will there, indeed, be any kind of personal freedom left to the large class of women and children who will become State dependents under family endowment?

Family endowment is certainly productive of much thought and many queries which must be answered before there can be any general acceptance of this interesting proposal.

ROSAMOND SMITH.

Women and the Labour Party. (The Labour Party, 1s. net.)

MR. ARTHUR HENDERSON describes the book as "an interpretation of Labour policy by women for women....but the prime purpose of the volume is to stimulate discussion among women, to shape opinion as well as to define policy, and to indicate the nature of the problems which await solution as well as to formulate remedies for them." Social problems necessarily affect both sexes, but so far as possible the problems chosen are those in which the experience of women is wider and closer than that of men. 'Women as Domestic Workers' is essentially such a problem. Roughly speaking half the chapters refer to the woman in the home and half to the woman in public life. They are not so grouped in the book. The quick change of subject and of style in the ten chapters and some unfortunately involved writing detract from its value to the busy working woman. In studying her 'Battle with Dirt' she will have also to battle with such a sentence as this:—

> "Cleanliness may be next to godliness, but although in twenty-five years in the Labour movement the writer has met not a few godlike men and women among those whose hands and garments were work-soiled, never yet has she known one among those who, being outwardly spotless, had yet no care for the plight of those by whose ministry their cleanliness was won."

A well-edited book in terse sentences knit into a complete policy would have been more useful to women of the wage-earning class for whom it is said to be particularly meant. But certain chapters will benefit all readers. Such, for instance, is Miss Mary Macarthur's contribution, with its practical common sense. Another is that by Miss Margaret Llewelyn Davies. Her belief in human nature shows throughout, and those who oppose Divorce Law Reform from a religious point of view will do well to think over her quotation from a working woman.

The 'Nursery of To-morrow' is partly the narration of a successful experiment and may be recommended as a true fairy story.

Space will not allow mention of each chapter or of much that is worthy of note. Chiefly one is thankful for the hope throughout that the simple needs of life can be so dealt with and its framework so controlled that "nobility of action and thought, joy, beauty, and the gift of service may be the rule for all." CELIA REISS.

Our Industrial Laws. By Miss Mary E. Phillips. (Published by the Y.W.C.A., 26 George Street, Hanover Square, W.1, 3*d*.)

WITHIN the small space of 32 pages Miss Phillips gives a very clear account of the Factory and Workshops Act, the Truck Act, and the Shops Act, and shows how these affect the young worker in her daily life. There is a special chapter showing how the law helps laundry workers and particulars are given with regard to compensation under the Workmen's Compensation Act. Mr. Mallon has contributed a chapter on Trade Boards. The whole pamphlet is crammed full of information and should be in the hands of every social worker.

E. M. Z.

Women Wanted. By Mabel Potter Daggett. (Hodder & Stoughton, 1918, 7*s*. 6*d*. net.)

MRS. DAGGETT'S book is a call to women and a reminder of the "big venture." With courage and seriousness and an unerring touch she strikes the same note over and over again, and through her pages shine example after example of successes achieved in every field of activity, for the most part by women who got the training—so brilliantly used when opportunity came—in the face of every kind of discouragement and opposition. "Aim high" is her call to women, "aim high and concentrate on the main issue"; and she illustrates in urging this, with sympathetic humour, that principal and disastrous failing of women (which is, after all, just the wrong side of their principal virtue) of losing themselves and wearing out under a multiplicity of aims.

It is a book for the ambitious woman who, immersed in the actual and present difficulties of her own trade or profession, sees still closing round her a series of bitter limitations—for Mrs. Daggett confines herself chiefly to outlining the highwater mark of actual progress in ideas and the murky depths are left undisturbed; and, infected by her good spirits, we feel that no sincere work goes without its fitting result, though the result may be long delayed. With originality of phrase she points out ideals accomplished, barriers newly fallen, and fresh fields opened, and with a swift summary passes lightly on—like an invigorating draught of fresh air that blows through an overheated office, rustling the papers and dispersing the smell of ink and general mustiness. And this book should surely be an inspiration to women of that vast army who jog along with second-rate posts and pay, second-rate health and standards of efficiency; and if its generous humanity does not awaken a response in the minds of those leisured classes who are so unable to control their domestic affairs that they do not provide employment for other women to serve them with happiness, why, then, nothing will stir their unimaginative selfishness—but in saying this we must note that any kind of irritated criticism is directly opposite to the spirit of this warmhearted book.

The chapter on ' The New Wages Envelope ' gives a remarkable bird's-eye view of the experience of women in industry since the war. It is, however, mainly the fear of unemployment among men that stiffens their general prejudice against giving women a free and fair chance, and this fact has scarcely been made prominent enough. While men believe that there is actually not enough work to go round —the idea which also dictates the necessity for restricting output— they will never see justice in giving opportunities to women that tempt them to leave trades such as laundry work, domestic service, and so on, to compete in what they consider primarily their own overstocked trades. For we read here again that women have proved their economical value in industry and without those bad results to health and home life that some predicted. The increase in the family's income through the mother's wage has meant a better standard of living, better clothes and food, better health and greater self-respect ; and we know this to be true even in a neighbourhood where the major part of employment was given by a factory where bad pre-war working conditions have not been materially altered for the better, with the increase in wages. For not all factories have progressed in the way described ; there still are factories without a proper employment bureau to take the place of the irresponsible forewomen in selecting and dismissing workers, without any organisation for making the best use of the stream of bright children sent to them from the school, without any canteens to provide meals or even adequate means of heating the food, brought by the workers themselves.

But a good pace has been set, and we know there will always be laggards. It is good to read of the French factory that allowed its women employees to leave a quarter of an hour earlier than the men so as to avoid the rush and congestion on the road home, and of other such humane considerations ; and it is pleasant to meet at last with a sympathetic note on the fur-coat. And after all what better investment could there be ? What coat is there lighter or warmer to wear setting forth on the long early morning journey or coming home after a 12 hours' night shift ? Ten pounds invested in war loan will, we know, in five years be rather more than £10, but if invested in a fur coat think of the comfort and of the help to health, and the coat will still be a coat after five years. A few shillings dropped in the saving box each week soon mount up and need not necessarily be saved off the food bills. Thrift and good sense are not, indeed, limited to one class only. We are glad, too, that the woman chosen as the typical worker is one earning " 25*s*., 30*s*., and even up to £2 a week when working overtime," and it is such details that strengthen confidence in the general trustworthiness of the information given ; for perhaps no one actually deeply engaged along any one line could have amassed all of it—just as perhaps no one who knows that " even the Peace Treaty cannot discharge her from service, but that she has been conscripted to carry on for life," so

heavy is the price she has perforce paid—could have written in such a detached and rippling manner. There is an excellent chapter 'The Rising Value of a Baby,' and the 'Open Door in Commerce' is a particularly good piece of observation, truthful and candid and sane.

The Women's Part : a Record of Munitions Work. By L. K. Yates. (Hodder & Stoughton, 1*s.* 3*d.* net.)

THE outstanding merit of this pamphlet, with its score of excellent photographs, is that it is manifestly first-hand. Its chapters are not reports compiled from Reports, but pictures drawn from life. Naturally, therefore, the pages have life and truth. Instead of dry statistics and vague generalities we have before us a synthesised view, filled in with the details that we should ourselves perceive if we stood in the writer's place and if (an all-important "if") we possessed either her discriminating eye or her power of describing at once vividly and with great compression. This is journalism—as journalism ought to be ; holding the interest and feeding the mind with real knowledge. One is tempted to add : "This is women's journalism," but it is safer to content oneself with saying that intelligent women will like to read it.

After a few paragraphs of introduction—a little clumsy these, and out of tone somehow with the rest of the work—comes an outline, rough but never vague, of the great movement of women. There are figures enough to form a backbone but not so many as to form a labyrinth, and there are generalisations from actual experience, far more important as guides for the future than a hasty reader may recognise. Thus, at the end of the section headed 'Dilution' comes the sentence : "One of the most surprising revelations of the war in this country has, indeed, been the capacity of women for engineering work, and to none has the discovery been more surprising and more exhilarating than to the women themselves."

Again, in the chapter upon 'Training the Munition Worker,' Miss Yates clinches her rapid sketch of the varied occupations from which workers come by the remark of an instructor : "It is not the rank of society from which the student is drawn ; it is the personality of the individual that counts."

Where almost every line is interesting it is difficult to select for praise one portion rather than another, but the most practically important, perhaps, is the record of the optical glass industry. All civilised people must hope that the demand for shells and fuses will decrease ; but that, on the other hand, the demand for improved scientific instruments will grow. In this industry women have achieved wonders—not, indeed, by their mere aptitude, since they might, naturally enough, be expected to acquire the exquisite delicacy of touch necessary ; but by the amazing rapidity with which they have attained the absolute accuracy and technical skill required. Yet it is horribly probable that, in this almost new industry, as in the

older ones, endeavours will be made either to oust the women or to retain them at unfairly low rates of pay.

Indeed, throughout every page of Miss Yates's record run two threads of unuttered suggestion: the one revealing glimpses of a vitalising spirit coming with the influx of women into higher industrial fields; the other indicating the waste, the cruelty, and the public loss that will be incurred if these newcomers are either driven into the old channels of backward, undeveloped employments or are deteriorated as workers by the gradual but certain physical and mental degeneration that accompanies systematic underpayment. C. B.

The Carnegie United Kingdom Trust Report on Public Baths and Washhouses in the United Kingdom, 1918.

THIS Report, which has just appeared, is the result of a most thorough investigation into the subject, and is profusely illustrated and supplied with maps, estimates and statistics. The subject is of great interest at the moment when every one's attention is concentrated on the housing of the working classes. The ideal house of the future will contain a bath for each family, but how long will it be before we have sufficient of those houses built? Meanwhile, it is quite obvious that the provision of public baths and wash houses should be considerably extended and it is to be hoped that this excellent publication will lead Borough Councils to supply additional accommodation.

The book starts with a short survey of the renaissanceof cleanliness after the dark ages. It seems extraordinary to us now to think that there were less than a century ago no public baths, for Liverpool was the pioneer corporation in 1842.

There is a resumé of the legislation, with the text of the Acts concerned, including the recent legislation insisting on the provision of compulsory baths at factories for those engaged in dangerous trades.

Several objections to the private baths in each house are urged besides the expense, such as the lack of appreciation of such facilities where they have been supplied; the space taken, which when scarce might be more advantageously used; the cost of heating which, in districts where fuel is dear, is heavier than the cost at public baths where the heating is done on a large scale. The provision of bathrooms for blocks of houses or for tenants is said to cause friction between families unless a competent superintendent supervises. The Peabody Buildings found baths under these conditions a success, but they were relatively expensive to conduct.

Public baths are much appreciated all over the country. The main difficulty is the week-end wash, which has been to some extent overcome by charging an extra 1*d*. on Saturday. The unpretentious cottage type of baths placed in the poorer districts so that the bathers have not far to go is advocated rather than the large baths in the centre of the business part of the town which many municipalities erect.

In America spray baths are used almost universally, but their use is not recommended in England except for school baths.

A number of schools have established school baths and the report advocates these for boys and for girls under 11, while considering them unsuitable for older girls. They provide a useful opportunity for inculcating cleanliness and it was observed that the children's condition much improved when they took a regular weekly bath.

The increased use of swimming baths, and, above all, the free facilities offered in most districts for school children with swimming instruction has been considerable. It is to be hoped that it will not be long before such instruction in baths or in suitable rivers or ponds is available for every school child on account of the great physical benefit as well as the probable decreased loss of life it confers. There is excellent technical information on the keeping of the baths and water in a sanitary condition.

Even if every house in the future has its own wash house, there is much to be said for public wash houses. Their arrangements for speedy drying are a great benefit in an uncertain climate; there is considerable danger to health in drying clothes in inhabited rooms and the electrical dryer saves considerable time. Washing at home must mean untidiness and the cost of fuel in the summer is considerable. Wash houses are much used where provided and more should be started in poorer districts.

It is to be hoped that this Report will fulfil its object directly building difficulties are over. J. L. F.

Juvenile Delinquency in Rural New York. By Kate Holladay Claghorn. (1918.)

THIS volume, one of the series of publications issued by the Children's Bureau of the United States Department of Labour, contains the result of an investigation into juvenile delinquency, carried out in twenty-one small agricultural communities in the State of New York. The delinquency here dealt with is not what is usually understood by the term—that is, offences which are brought before a court of justice.

The investigators were impressed by the fact that, in rural areas at any rate, the enforcement of the law is lax and to a large extent haphazard. They have therefore endeavoured to "go back of prosecuted misdeeds to the acts themselves." They have, indeed, consulted the records of prosecutions, and investigated cases at "Industry," one of the three State institutions ("reform schools") for delinquent children. But their chief work consisted in going into the various townships and villages selected, and there studying, from every point of view, "all the children generally regarded as bad in the neighbourhood." Three-quarters of the book is taken up with these "community studies"—the case-papers of the 185 bad girls and boys of the family, in which their doings, those of their parents,

the views of the school teacher, the parson, and the neighbours are set out in considerable and often picturesque detail.

The conclusions reached by the investigators, though limited by the small numbers dealt with and often indefinite, are nevertheless full of interest. They suggest that delinquency is not, as has often been urged, largely the result of the unnatural conditions of town life. Where it is not incited by others, it often proceeds from the absence of a proper outlet for the energies, whether physical or mental. Frequently it is reaction from laborious or monotonous toil—the boy is overworked on a farm or the girl drudges in domestic service—coupled with a lack of knowledge of how to spend leisure. "The great complaint of young people in a country neighbourhood is 'nothing to do.' This gap they try to fill with sex excitement and with riotous mischief that may end in larceny and burglary."

Another fact which emerges is that a child may be branded as a delinquent, not because of the offence which he has committed, but because he has been unfortunate in the choice of his parents, who are unsatisfactory; or—a fact more clearly seen in this intensive study of a small community than in a large city—because there is no corporate feeling leading the community to accept responsibility for a neglected child.

The reforms suggested are of special interest when we remember that America has been the pioneer in the treatment of child offenders, that the State of New York was one of the first to establish a separate children's court, and that the probation system is of American origin, and far more widely employed than in this country. The investigators urge:—

1. That the Children's Courts should have jurisdiction over young persons up to the age of 18, instead of 16 as now.

2. That in connection with the juvenile court there should be provided "some other place of detention for children than the jail, the calaboose, or the police station," where they may remain until sent to an institution. Such places are badly needed in this country.

3. That Probation should be extended, and more and better probation officers appointed. How much greater is our need here, where a probation officer may be responsible for over 300 probationers—adult, juvenile-adult, and juvenile—at one time?

4. That children should not be thrown together pell-mell in an institution, regardless of the nature of their offence. "In one institution will be found the normal child whose only fault is having no home, but is committed as a 'vagrant';....the actually perverted and degenerate, who steals, burns barns, and is guilty of sex perversion.... and the feeble-minded." Much the same lack of classification obtains here, as readers of Mr. Clarke Hall's book 'The State and the Child' will know.

Finally, there is in this book an extraordinary preoccupation with sex matters. Sexual offences of various kinds are attributed to quite tiny children. The records of the New York Children's Court

do not support the statements here made on this point ; and one can only surmise that, owing to the method of their inquiry, the investigators were forced to listen to a great deal of village gossip, always particularly fruitful on this subject, which, as recorded, leaves an unpleasant impression of abnormal sexual precocity. L. KAY.

Bulletin of the United States Bureau of Labour Statistics.

THIS publication, sent regularly to the office and available for consultation by any member of the Council, is of considerable interest.

Practically all American labour legislation is enacted by the individual States for themselves and the greatest diversity exists. Some States are considerably in advance of the United Kingdom as regards their education, their hours of labour, &c., and show us an example of many laws that could be introduced here with advantage ; while others permit child labour and leave such latitude with regard to conditions generally as to remind one of the conditions in England fifty or sixty years ago. At the same time there is naturally a continual levelling up, which has been quite pronounced in the year 1917.

MOTHERS' PENSIONS, on which subject Judge Neal has enlightened the British public, have been extended considerably. Six States have now adopted this principle. It is interesting to note the great difference in the sums paid and the conditions under which pensions are granted. Arizona is the most generous State, paying 20 dollars for the first child, while Delaware only gives 8 dollars for the first, and 4 dollars for subsequent children. Most states grant pensions to the wives of convicts and totally incapacitated men, to divorced and deserted women. Minesota extends them to grandmothers suitable for the custody of orphan children or those with undesirable parents. Maine is less generous and only grants pensions where there is no relative, individual, or agency that would assist and prosecutes deserting fathers before granting pensions for their children. The authority who is responsible for the allocation varies. Arizona gives the power to a Child Welfare Board of seven, on which there must be not less than two women. Delaware requires nine women on its Commissions for the purpose.

MINIMUM WAGE.—The principle of a minimum wage for women has been extended and seems fixed at a very high rate until we remember the high cost of living in the States.

Arizona fixes 10 dollars as the minimum for adult women workers in shops, restaurants, and laundries, stating "A lesser amount being hereby declared inadequate to supply the necessary cost of living to maintain her health and provide her with the common necessaries of life." The extension of Trades Boards to cover these occupations and provide a living wage for restaurant and tea-shop girls in England seems a crying need, can we not copy Arizona ?

Colorado forbids the employment of women for inadequate wages and orders an inquiry into the wages of women and young